

## Program Planning: The Neglected Dimension of Service-Learning

Lorilee R. Sandmann

*University of Georgia*

**Richard C. Kiely**

*Cornell University*

**Robin S. Grenier**

*University of Connecticut*

*While service-learning has distinguished itself in the literature as a problem-based experiential alternative to dominant classroom-based, subject-centered pedagogies, there is a strange absence of research based on program planning theory. This work introduces program planning theory to the field of service-learning and reports findings from a comparative analysis of service-learning case studies that led to the development of a relational model for understanding program planning theory and incorporating it in service-learning research and practice.*

### Introducing Program Planning Theory to Service-Learning

Research on service-learning continues to document its impact on undergraduate students, faculty, institutions, and communities; however, it fails to capture the planning and process dimensions that lead to diverse programmatic outcomes (Kiely, 2005; Kiely, Hartman, & Nielsen, 2005; Kiely & Kiely, 2006). Such a gap in research, practice, and theory stems from two glaring holes in the service-learning field.

First, much service-learning research is neither theory informed nor theory generating (Bringle, 2003), particularly in the areas of program planning and learning processes (Kiely, 2005). Without robust theories that might direct researchers to important program planning and learning processes, service-learning researchers will continue to draw from traditional technical-rational and reflective approaches to curriculum planning and equate research with assessing pedagogical issues and course outcomes to prove that service-learning courses and programs really do make a difference in the lives of students. That is, rather than drawing from theory, service-learning advocates often conduct research that serves limited instrumental and economic ends. Proving that the programs meet predetermined, measurable academic goals and objectives related to curricula and student learning satisfy institutional leaders who demand some program accountability for the resources allocated (Eyler, 2000; Gent, 2007). However, program accountability tends to mean narrowly focused course-driven and outcome-oriented evaluations intended to demonstrate that service-learning yields increased cognitive ability and technical proficiency of student participants (Eyler, 2000).

Another consequence of theory deficiency in service-learning planning and processes is that the field does not accumulate substantial knowledge in a cohesive and systematic manner that might explain how partnerships are developed with diverse stakeholders in specific contexts and also assist service-learning practitioners, faculty, administrators, and researchers in understanding core elements related to the complex process of planning, designing, implementing, evaluating, and sustaining service-learning pedagogy, programs, and partnerships. In addition to the negative affect on knowledge accumulation, learning outcomes, professional development, and program improvement, without robust theory to inform practice the overall impact of our collective work on individual stakeholders and communities is significantly diminished.

Second, there is a strange absence of program planning theories in service-learning of which there are a number of theories that specifically address issues related to negotiating diverse stakeholder power, roles, and interests in planning programs (Caffarella, 2002; Cervero & Wilson, 1994, 2006; Sork, 2000). Considering that service-learning has distinguished itself in the literature as a problem-based experiential alternative to dominant classroom-based, subject-centered pedagogies (Howard, 1998), the absence of program planning theories that focus not only on course-based cognitive outcomes but on social, political, and ethical considerations that inform the development of service-learning partnerships is all the more peculiar. We recognize that substantial work has gone into defining the underlying philosophical traditions of social justice models for service-learning pedagogy (i.e., John Dewey, Paulo

Freire, bell hooks, Miles Horton); however, there is no corresponding program planning theory to assist practitioners in the implementation of these important philosophical principles and in explicitly connecting curricula to building campus-community partnerships among stakeholders who have different interests, knowledge, levels of power, and responsibilities. More recent program planning theory in adult education (Caffarella; Cervero & Wilson) addresses the need for curriculum planning to go beyond technical-rational and reflective discourses on curricula to more adequately capture the complex social and political nature of educational program planning. Contemporary approaches to program planning theory in adult education draw from technical, practical, and critical traditions in curriculum and program planning theory (Caffarella; Cervero & Wilson) and also seek to better understand how contextual factors (i.e., historical, political, moral, cultural, social, structural) influence how planners make decisions and how educational programs are developed.

Our review of research suggests that program planning literature and theory is nearly unknown in service-learning planning literature, yet our experience suggests that current approaches to program planning more adequately reflect the process of planning service-learning courses and programs.<sup>1</sup> It's not that service-learning practitioners are unaware of the social, cultural, and political dimensions of service-learning; indeed, anyone who has engaged in planning a service-learning program is acutely aware of how these factors affect planning, design, implementation, and outcomes. Yet it is precisely because such contextual and relational factors are central to planning service-learning that we propose program planning theory as a useful theoretical framework to guide the social and political reality of service-learning practitioners' work.<sup>2</sup> Therefore, this article has two primary objectives: (a) to introduce program planning theory to the field of service-learning, and (b) to explore how program planning theory impacts the quality of service-learning practice. To this end, this paper will report findings from a comparative analysis of three service-learning case studies that were informed by program-planning theories (Caffarella, 2002; Cervero & Wilson, 2006) and led to the development of a relational program planning model for service-learning. An argument will be made for understanding program planning theories and incorporating them in service-learning research and practice, with a focus on the value of the relational program planning model for informing service-learning practice.

## Literature Review

Our review of service-learning literature revealed a salient absence of explicit program planning theories

in service-learning writing and research (Billig & Waterman, 2003; Eyler, Giles, Stenson, & Gray, 2001; Howard, Gelmon, & Giles, 2000). Without robust program planning theories to guide practice, educational models (including service-learning) and accompanying practice risk drawing too heavily from what prominent planning theorists Cervero and Wilson (1994; 2006), Caffarella (2002), and Sork (2000) deem a narrowly defined "technical-rational" approach to curriculum and program planning. Technical-rational approaches to curriculum and planning models are firmly embedded in what Sork (2000) describes as the hegemony of the "Tyler Rationale" and remain consistent with Tyler's (1949) linear, formulaic, and acontextual approach to curriculum and program planning in which social, historical, and political dimensions are not explicitly accounted for in the design, implementation, and evaluation of educational programs.

While much of the service-learning literature goes beyond a purely method-driven, "technical-rational approach" to planning, our review indicates that much of the field tends to focus on distinctions between service-learning curriculum design and classroom-based curriculum development and centers on the importance of reflection and reciprocity (Berman, 2006; Billig & Waterman, 2003; Howard, 1998; Howard, Gelmon, & Giles, 2000; Kaye, 2004) as guiding principles for practice. There is little discussion of the underlying theoretical assumptions guiding decisions key to service-learning program planning and evolving partnerships among diverse stakeholders. While these guidebooks are useful for course development they are not as helpful for faculty in dealing with the inevitable negotiation of contextual factors, institutional factors, and diverse and uneven stakeholder power and interests that may pose substantial barriers to the development of a sustainable campus-community partnership. In addition, most service-learning curriculum models fail to surface and/or question how the underlying relationships and set of interests drive the technical, practical, social, and political dimensions of the program planning process. As a result, service-learning writing and research chiefly has yielded improvements in pedagogy and method without having substantially altered the social relations, institutional arrangements, policies, and other structural dimensions to problems that service-learning programs are attempting to address (Reardon, 2006; Strand et al., 2003).

## *Service-Learning and Partnerships*

The literature on service-learning partnerships and community-based research provide useful and more adequate conceptual models that assist service-learning practitioners in designing programs with a social

and political orientation that attempt to engage multiple stakeholders with different interests, needs, assets, and levels of power (Jacoby & Associates, 2003; Pritchard & Whitehead, 2004; Reardon, 1994, 2000; Strand et al., 2003). For example, Pritchard and Whitehead's collaborative service-learning model is an attempt to incorporate the social dimension of service-learning into the planning process but does not provide practical guidance on how to negotiate competing stakeholder interests, institutional barriers, power differentials, and conflict in order to collaborate more effectively. By integrating theories of reflection (i.e., Kolb, Dewey, etc.), popular education, organizing, advocacy planning, and participatory action research approaches to community development and planning, Reardon's (2000; 2006) empowerment planning model, Strand et al.'s community-based research approach, and Jacoby and Associates' collective work on campus-community partnerships go the furthest in providing conceptual frameworks for building community capacity, impacting policies, and engaging multiple stakeholders, including students, communities, and institutions.

Faculty who are more familiar with designing curricula aimed at students rather than multiple sets of stakeholders and who do not have experience in community organizing, popular education, and community-based research are less likely to understand how to engage with community partners in a participatory manner or how to negotiate multiple stakeholder interests and unequal relations of power. More importantly, the models described above do not explain fully how "planners" design service-learning coursework and curricula and also engage with diverse stakeholder needs and interests to build sustainable partnerships. Program planning theories that more explicitly build on and clarify dimensions of the technical, practical, reflective, and empowerment traditions in curriculum and planning (Caffarella, 2002; Cervero & Wilson, 1994, 2006) would assist service-learning program planners in designing, implementing, and evaluating programs not only with the needs, interests, and participation of multiple stakeholders in mind, but also in terms of balancing unequal relations of power, structural barriers, and conflicting stakeholder needs and interests.

#### *Program Planning Theories in Adult Education*

In this section we describe two program planning models—Caffarella's (2002) interactive approach to planning and Cervero and Wilson's (1994, 2006) more critical, democratic approach to program planning—that explicitly draw from, critique, and expand on three primary traditions—the technical-rational, practical, and critical approaches to program planning—by incorporating social and political dimen-

sions into planning practice. Both theoretical models draw extensively from and expand on previous theory and research in curriculum development and program planning in the field of adult education.

Caffarella's (2002) program planning model offers practitioners a nuts-and-bolts approach to planning and provides a practical set of guidelines for understanding the role of context and practical decision-making when planning service-learning programs. Caffarella describes how planners might utilize 12 interactive planning elements to design programs (discerning the context, building a solid base of support, identifying program ideas, sorting and prioritizing program ideas, developing learning and program objectives, designing instructional plans, devising transfer of learning plans, formulating evaluation plans, making recommendations and communicating results, selecting formats, schedules, and staff needs, preparing budgets and marketing plans, and coordinating facilities and on-site events). Caffarella's text explains each planning component with examples and practical exercises to help planners think through and anticipate different interactive dimensions of the planning process. Her model draws from the metaphor of the ocean to highlight the contextual dimensions of planning processes and decisions: all planners make decisions within a vast evolving, unpredictable, and complex environment (p. 1). To make optimal use of this model, an educator or planner learns how to make reflective and practical decisions regarding the format and content of programs that draw from a comprehensive understanding of the social and historical *context* at key points of the planning process.

Caffarella's (2002) program planning approach is both technical and practical and suggests a highly deliberative process. Within this planning model, much of the onus for planning falls on the planner, who must identify and become familiar with the needs, interests, and assets of multiple stakeholders, prioritize stakeholder perspectives and ideas, gain an understanding of level of influence, safety, and risks associated with a program, and then broker support for the program, design measurable learning and program objectives, market the program, develop and maintain a budget sufficient for the program to run smoothly, coordinate the program activities on-site, and provide ongoing assessment. Caffarella's model provides a more realistic analysis of the level of work and detail that goes into planning curricula and programs when planners take into consideration how context, institutional structures, and people impact planning and the planners' ability to control such factors through more informed and reflective decision-making. Her model responds to the limitations of previous linear, formulaic, and acontextual planning models by introducing the planners' role and reflec-

tive practice into the planning process. Caffarella's planning model emphasizes the need for planners to understand the multiple and interactive dimensions of program planning and develop fairly substantial skills beyond content mastery to adequately assess myriad contextual factors, which in turn will help in making reflective decisions regarding the design and implementation of effective programs.

Cervero and Wilson's (1994; 2006) model not only builds on the technical and practical dimensions of planning but also emphasizes the need for planning models to assist planners in understanding and negotiating the social, ethical, and political dimensions of the program context to ensure that the planning process is democratic and inclusive. They argue that previous curriculum and program planning theories have largely focused on technical and practical aspects of the planning process while neglecting to provide a theory for how to engage with the ethical and political dimensions of educational program planning (Cervero & Wilson, 1994; 2006). They argue that the social, ethical, and political dimensions of planning have a greater influence on the purpose, objectives, audience, and impact of educational programs but that planning models provide very little guidance on how to understand, negotiate, and act on diverse stakeholder interests, unequal relations of power, and social and institutional structures to have greater control over content as well as more inclusive stakeholder participation in programs (Cervero & Wilson, 2006, p. 22). To address this gap, Cervero and Wilson's planning theory offers planners more practical guidance in negotiating stakeholder power and interests. Their program planning model entails four main concepts: power, interests, negotiation, and responsibility (p. 24).

The metaphor of "the planning table" underpins Cervero and Wilson's (2006) planning theory, and they agree with Caffarella (2002) that a planner needs to learn how to reflect on practice and make thoughtful decisions in a specific social context to foster important learning outcomes. In addition to developing technical and practical skills, planners and educators must understand the context by identifying not only who is, but who is not seated at the "planning table" when programs are planned (Cervero & Wilson). That is, to plan, design, and implement programs responsibly, planners must, as their central task, identify stakeholders; assess their needs, interests, and assets; and make decisions regarding their level of influence and power over program design so that the process is more equitable, democratic, and inclusive (Cervero & Wilson, 1994, 2006). In their planning model, the educational program planner must become not only a skillful curriculum technician and reflective practitioner, but also a savvy power bro-

ker who knows how to negotiate with diverse stakeholders (Cervero & Wilson, 2006). By acting as power brokers with guidelines on specific strategies for renegotiating stakeholder power and interests more democratically in diverse contexts, planners increase the likelihood that a program will positively impact both educational outcomes and social and political outcomes (Cervero & Wilson, 2006).

The central claim in Cervero and Wilson's (2006) work is that previous program planning theories (i.e., including those that are more critical and social justice-oriented) have perpetuated a theory-practice gap, resulting in inadequate guidance for educators in terms of understanding and negotiating different levels of stakeholder power and interests and then making thoughtful political and ethical decisions embedded in their daily practice (p. 240). This argument parallels our own contention that the ongoing political and moral dilemmas that service-learning educators experience in planning programs with multiple stakeholders are not adequately reflected in the more technical-oriented, practical, and reflective theories and models the field espouses. We argue that greater understanding and use of the technical, practical, and critical approaches highlighted in the program planning models developed by Caffarella (2002) and Cervero and Wilson will shift program planning research and pedagogy in service-learning toward a different set of variables that incorporate and connect pedagogy and partnerships: planning strategies for addressing social and political relations, how context shapes the service-learning process, how practitioners make decisions in specific service-learning contexts, and how planners negotiate power differentials among stakeholders. Our case study research shows the impact of Cervero and Wilson, and Caffarella on program planning decisions and outcomes as well as the challenges associated with engaging with the technical, practical, and political dimensions of planning service-learning programs.

In summary, our review of service-learning and program planning literature found a continuum of planning approaches which influence how faculty understand and practice their role when planning curricula, programs, and partnerships (see Table 1, first three approaches). Each of the approaches centers on a dominant practice and encompasses a number of characteristics. In general, our experience is that program planning in service-learning is fundamentally a combination of technical, political, and relational processes (i.e., multiple stakeholders with diverse needs and interests engage in service and learning to address a need or problem in a specific context), but because of a theory-practice gap perpetuated by existing planning models, the reality of service-learning practice is not informed by planning theories that

Table 1  
*Traditional Program Planning Approaches and the Relational Approach.*

Approach	Dominant Planning Practice	Characteristics	Faculty Role
<b>Technical Rational Approach</b>	Character Based Curriculum	Linear, formulaic, acontextual	Instructor
	Reflective Experiential	Curriculum based, student-centered, project based outcomes, neglects negotiation	Reflective Facilitator
	Interactive	Practical decision making, recognizes context, planner-centered	Deliberative Practitioner
	Democratic	Managing the planning context, recognizes social and political factors, acknowledges power structures	Negotiator
	Dialogic	Links technical, practical, and socio-political dimensions, recognizes stakeholder resources, needs, and interests. Facilitates developmental and on-going dialogue and reflection.	Nurturing

connect curriculum design with context, social relations, and stakeholder power and interests. Thus, there is a need for program planning theories in service-learning that provide guidance to more effectively design coursework, foster relationships, and negotiate each stakeholder's needs, interests, assets, and power. This paucity in the literature led us to examine program planning and implementation practices in graduate-level service-learning courses.

#### Methods: Cross-Case Comparison— Practitioner Inquiry

##### *The Cases*

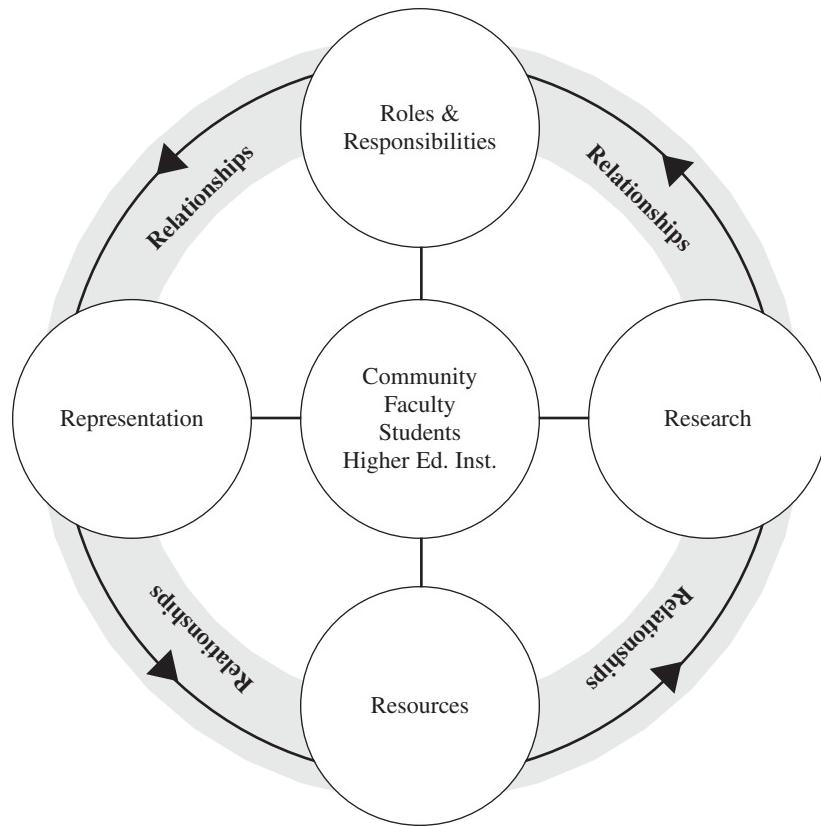
Three courses used service-learning as a foundation for instruction in various theories as well as practice in adult education: Program Evaluation, Theory and Practice of Educational Change/Organizational Learning, and Adult Education for Community Development. The courses were open to Ph.D. and master's-level students across the university as both elective and core courses within the graduate program. Each course had been taught previously within the adult education program without a service-learning approach, but the change in the course structure allowed for direct application of theory and literature in an authentic organization or community context based on stakeholder needs and interests, while also providing continuity in the learning

process and student outcomes. Approximately 12-25 students enrolled in each course, with master's- and doctoral-level students in approximately equal numbers. Three different adult education faculty members were instructors of record; they were supported by doctoral-level teaching assistants.

Program Evaluation, taken by large numbers of students from the College of Education and Public Health, focused on the development of knowledge and skills necessary for designing and implementing program evaluations. The goal of the course was to provide both theoretical and practical understanding of program evaluation in a variety of settings. After completing the course, students were to have a greater understanding of the political, real world, and practical face of evaluation as well as the theoretical, social, and scientific face of evaluation through design, implementation, reporting, and management.

The second course, Theory and Practice of Educational Change and Organizational Learning was a required course and addressed individual and collective meanings of change, theory, and practice of organizational change and development in a variety of educational and organizational settings. Students in the course were challenged to understand the issues, theories, and practices related to organization change and development, develop a philosophy of understanding, and lead planned change in an action research process.

Figure 1  
*Service-Learning Program Planning Model (SLPPM).*



The final course, Adult Education for Community Development, was designed as a critique of community action and learning processes in community settings. The elective course served as an introduction to how adult educators and human resource professionals develop communities and provided an opportunity for graduate students to explore community development issues and concepts from local, national, and global perspectives through the implementation of a community-based research project.

Independent of content, the courses were grounded in a service-learning, experiential approach (Fenwick, 2003; Jacoby & Associates, 1996) and were dedicated to working with community stakeholders to place coursework into an applied context. The courses combined lectures, seminars, group work, and small group discussions to look at the foundational theory and literature relative to the course subject; this began a spiraling process that linked classroom learning to context derived from the student-community partnerships. The class meetings stressed conceptualizing knowledge and skills in meeting the goals of their student-community partnerships, thereby integrating practical experience with abstract thought (Eyler, 2002).

### Methods

Methods for gathering data included on-site participant observation of the service project, document analysis (i.e., journals, papers, and project documents), and semistructured interviews and focus groups with graduate students and community participants held 2–6 months after the class (Patton, 2002). Themes and patterns (Glesne, 1999; Patton) were derived through constant comparative analysis (Glaser & Strauss, 1973) across the cases. Multiple researchers, diverse sources of data, extensive work in the field, and periodic member checks enhanced the trustworthiness of the research outcomes and process (Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Patton). Due to length constraints, we have chosen to represent a summary of our data in Appendix A and provided a vignette (Stenhouse, 1988) of one of the courses. Appendix A presents data from each of the case classes, their partners, and dimensions of their service learning approach—the research, the relationship, roles and responsibilities, resources, and representation or products. The vignette of the program evaluation course allowed us to interpret a particular incident and use it to illustrate the more general situation of program planning for service-learning courses, and cry-

tallize the themes that arose from the cross-case comparison and resulted in the emerging model.

### Findings and Model Development

Our analysis of data led us to create a Service-Learning Program Planning Model (SLPPM) based on the needs and interests of stakeholder groups or partners, and the planning processes/dimensions on which they make decisions. We found that these stakeholder-partners and dimensions are all integral components to service-learning program planning in graduate courses, and foundational to our understanding of sustained partnerships and student learning. In the following section, we depict and discuss the findings on which we base our SLPPM (see Figure 1) for graduate-level service-learning, then explicate the findings and the model by drawing on one of the cases.

#### *Service-Learning Program Planning Model*

Overall, five dimensions are represented in the SLPPM: research, relationships, roles and responsibilities, representation, and resources. The model depicts the dimensions as interconnected with each other and with the partners to illustrate the interrelated process necessary for program planning in a graduate-level service-learning context. The partners include community partners, faculty, students, and the higher education institution. The partners all hold a stake in the success of the service-learning program, all have influence over the process, and all have interests to maintain and cultivate. According to Mabry and Wilson (2001), this interconnection is foundational because the strategic actions of program planners vary according to the specific context and their perceptions of stakeholder involvement. It is critical that the partner stakeholders are included, recognized, and incorporated in addressing each of the dimensions within the program planning process. These partners, dimensions, and their relationship will be further explained.

#### *Partners*

The SLPPM involves four partners: community partners, students, faculty, and the higher education institution. Although each stakeholder brings differing degrees of involvement and commitment to the partnership, all are necessary to successful service-learning endeavors because they bring resources to the planning, implementation, and sustainability of the service-learning function. *Students* are those individuals who take part in service-learning to fulfill a program or course requirement. They may also be driven by more internal motivations, such as a predisposition to be involved in the community for civic or social justice ends. Therefore, student involvement in and commitment to service-learning ranges from

attaining course credit to meeting a specific academic, personal, or professional interest. To achieve the desired outcomes, students work with faculty and community partners within a university context to negotiate their role and meet agreed-upon objectives. Typical tasks for students include assessing current research or conditions; designing materials, resources, or products; locating, gathering, sorting, and analyzing data and materials; and facilitating programs, assessments, and evaluations. Students may need to apply skills and knowledge drawn from the present course, previous education, and prior experience.

Relationships with *community partners* originate from both students and faculty, and such partners are representative of a larger nonprofit, governmental, or community-based organization. Individuals in this partner group most often include those serving in an administrative role, but ideally include stakeholders at all levels of the organization. Community partners are identified because they have sought the help of the university in addressing a preexisting problem or because of a link to the course content. In most cases, students were directly involved in identifying and negotiating their student-community partnerships, with support from faculty. These student-community partnerships ranged from highly complex to relatively simplistic. Once a relationship has been created, partners meet with faculty and students and determine a project for the student to undertake. In the cases we examined, partnerships varied in their goals, which were negotiated by the community stakeholders and tended to support existing processes or projects, or assist in the development and design of future projects or goals.

The *higher education institution* is another partner and includes those stakeholders, departments, agencies, and schools having an interest in the service-learning function, or influencing the work of the other partners participating in the endeavor. Moreover, the college or university partner administers those policies and procedures to which other partners must adhere to meet institutional requirements for research, coursework, assessment, resource allocation, materials, graduation, and tenure.

The last partner in the SLPPM is *faculty*. Faculty partners are scholars who have incorporated the service-learning function into a course or who operate in a sphere of engaged scholarship (Sandmann, 2006). Faculty members often serve as facilitator and intermediary with the other partners. They are the face for the college or university, an advisor for students in the service-learning course, and a point of contact for the community. Faculty must balance these roles to meet the demands of the university, the needs of students, and the interests of community partners, while satisfying their own research, teaching, and service obligations.

### Dimensions

The SLPPM includes five dimensions: research, relationships, roles and responsibilities, representation, and resources. Each of these dimensions is found within service-learning program planning; all are interrelated. The dimensions ensure the success of service-learning endeavors and are influenced by each of the partners in the overall process.

The *research dimension* of the model focuses attention on who has a stake or interest in the success of a program and/or partnership and what the partners hope to accomplish to further theoretical understandings and ensure practical application of the service-learning activity. In addressing the research dimension, partners must consider the nature of the problem being examined, the context in which the research is to occur, the implications of the research, and how each of those issues affects all those involved in the work. Therefore, research in the service-learning setting builds on and yet differs from more traditional scholarship which is perceived to be disciplinary, homogeneous, expert-led, supply-driven, hierarchical, peer-reviewed, and almost exclusively university-based knowledge generation (Strand et al., 2003). Rather, it is similar to Gibbons et al.'s (1994) engaged knowledge generation, which is applied, problem-centered, transdisciplinary, heterogeneous, hybrid, demand-driven, entrepreneurial, and network-embedded.

Prior to or during the service-learning course, it is important that all partners learn and appreciate the unique skills of this type of community-based, collaborative research. Community partners, students, and sometimes faculty alike, learn to express their interests, negotiate the questions being asked, understand data collection and analysis procedures, and clarify the utilization and dissemination of findings. While having a research or evaluation dimension may be a dominant approach to graduate-level service-learning, it is not used exclusively. For example, taking social action could be another approach as exemplified by public health students holding a health fair for immigrants.

*Relationships* among faculty, students, community partners, and the university brings to light the interests of each and the depth of those relationships. Although a collaborative approach is important (Jacoby & Associates, 2003; Strand et al., 2003; Torres, 2000), relationships include the continual negotiation of partner needs and interests within existing and newly created power structures. Within a service-learning context, the effort—which is ongoing—to identify, manage, develop, and nurture relationships between all partners should not be underestimated by faculty, who are often the glue

that holds relationships together. When focus is placed on this dimension, it is important to ask whose interests count, and consider those in relation to whose interests should count specifically in the service-learning course.

*Roles and responsibilities* focuses on partners building upon relationships through negotiation of all the program components, including the instructional plan and student learning, both of which are grounded in adult learning theory. Inclusiveness and a democratic balance of power are principles of good practice, which encompasses partners' short- and long-term goals, needs, and interests. As indicated in much of the service-learning literature focused on partnerships (Jacoby & Associates, 2003; Strand et al., 2003), partners must consider their individual and collective roles and contributions, as well as their responsibilities, in the planning, decision-making, and action of the service-learning while balancing partner resources, the scope of the service-learning function, and long-term relationships.

*Representation* brings to the forefront issues of the evaluation, transferability, and sustainability of the research over the course of the service-learning endeavor and beyond. Representation includes the forms that the service-learning endeavor takes to benefit all the partners. It is critical to consider how the work produced by students and community partners is disseminated internally and externally, who has access to it, how faculty represent the work in their own scholarship, and how the products, partnerships, and service-learning function will evolve over several semesters or extended periods of time.

*Resources* is the final dimension of the SLPPM. Consistent with research on how to build more sustainable campus-community partnerships (Jacoby & Associates, 2003; Pigza & Troppe, 2003) in the process of forming relationships and establishing trust, partners must reflect on what skills, assets, and resources they each bring to the planning process to create sustainable partnerships that result in transferable research and student learning. Each partner often comes with resources to meet the needs of the service-learning function and contribute to successful experiences for all partners. This service-learning capital may include personal connections, specific skills and experiences, funding, supplies and labor, and physical space. A critical resource is access to real-life settings, problems, and data in multiple forms. Resources may not be apparent or equal, but partners often find that they provide an invaluable and necessary piece to the service-learning puzzle.

*The Case of a Program Evaluation Course.* Summary data from all the courses are presented in Appendix A. Here we illustrate the partners and dimensions of the SLPPM more fully through one of

the cases: the Program Evaluation course. In drawing from a utilization-focused approach to program evaluation (Patton, 2008), identifying stakeholders and researching their needs and interests are fundamental activities. However, when a course in program evaluation involves students planning and conducting an authentic evaluation, the mere identification of the stakeholders is quite insufficient. Participation in such a service-learning project involves not only multiple layers of stakeholders but the continuous negotiation among the stakeholders to meet the needs and interests of all. This was particularly the case in a class project to evaluate hospital disaster management preparedness plans. For students to design and conduct the evaluation, they needed to (a) be sponsored into a project with high security, (b) understand the complex network of tertiary and emergency response, (c) learn the constructs of hospital preparedness, a growing field for which national standards are only just emerging, and (d) execute the evaluation under the conditions of a timed drill involving seven hospitals simultaneously, all while learning the theory and practice of ethical evaluation. Fulfilling these conditions represented an exciting service-learning function for the course and also illustrated the program planning model's dimensions of research, relationships, representation, and resources.

The major groups of stakeholders with differing *roles and responsibilities* included members of the Institute for Health Management and Mass Destruction (IHMD), who, under a contract with the state, sponsored the drill; emergency preparedness staff of the hospitals, whose hospitals were involved on a voluntary basis; the class instructor; and graduate students who were members of the graduate-level educational program evaluation classes. With so many stakeholders and various layers within the stakeholder groups, it was important to decipher who could and would represent each group. In the case of IHMD, the director expressed a desire to be involved, but his schedule prevented his active participation. Thus, about a third of the way through the class, another staff member came to serve as his proxy and did so ably, attending a part of almost every class session. Students sorted out the various roles and responsibilities: "The instructor role was to guide me in the thought process in the various evaluation models and practices and then serve as a major coach/cheerleader/safety net during the exercise." "I thought I was clear about the logic model, but it wasn't so clear when dealing with specifics with the case. The community played a huge role in my understanding of the limitations of the logic model—what was inside the box; what was outside the box." "The class and community organizations had a huge impact on negotiating with me and my theoretical approaches." "The hospitals were detached but important team players."

However, it was also important for the community partners to sort out the responsibility of the students; as one such drill official remarked, "I need to remember that this needs to be a learning experience for the students as well as them serving as 'boots on the ground' for our evaluation."

From *researching* the needs and interests of the multiple stakeholders, to investigating the national and accreditation performance standards as well as the local hospital contexts, to actually conducting the evaluation, collaborative inquiry was foundational to this course. How this research was conducted was continuously discussed among the partners. Because hospital security plans and readiness were being assessed, a political aspect—the confidential nature of the findings—prohibited conventional broad-based dissemination of results. As a condition of access to information and the experience, this restricted dissemination of results was negotiated and agreed upon at the beginning of the partnership. Weeks were spent in classroom instruction, including tabletop exercises, often cotaught by the university course instructor and the disaster management exercise director, to build the students' capacity to do the evaluation research involving data collection under time constraints of the setting as well as the data analysis. One student indicated, "The drill went so quickly, I needed all the preparation I could get." Another stated, "I am not a researcher and have had no research classes, so I was grateful for the careful, guided instruction before I went into the field." Also, the institutional partner, in this case represented by the university's institutional review board, needed to understand the complex and dynamic conditions involving the use of human subjects in this type of research.

There were many *representations* of the work in this course. Most notable for students was their participation as on-site evaluators in a "hot wash," an oral debriefing with hospital staff immediately following the drill. Additionally, they produced reports that were included in the official after-action reports and plans for the hospitals, and they wrote assessment and transmittal documentation for the IHMD director. Although the recommendations themselves were confidential, a news article about the process and results was published on the College of Education Web site and in its newsletter.

Each stakeholder group had disparate interests and exercised power at different times. Power was particularly exercised over *resources*: students needed access to hospital plans to prepare for the drill and to the hospital for the actual observation and evaluation, yet hospitals were cautious about sharing both. In fact, some hospitals, in the end, did not share their plans, so students did not have that document as a basis of comparison. The IHMD staff brokered information and established and managed a security protocol, and the

course instructor served as the liaison between IHMD and the course and materials. Because this evaluation represented the beginning of a much hoped-for continued collaboration between the adult education and public health academic programs, becoming acquainted with the IHMD stakeholders and knowledgeable about the disaster management content and context required an extraordinary investment of nonclass time for the faculty instructor.

The *relationships* between the partners and the dimensions were highly dynamic. In a politically charged environment where a poor evaluation may reflect badly on a major community resource, many compromises in the drill as well as the evaluation evolved during the planning period. This was most poignantly felt when, two weeks before the actual drill, the primary regional hospital denied the students access to their site. “I had no idea how political program evaluation was!” reflected one student.

However, the faculty and students were not entirely powerless. A continued point of negotiation was keeping this a learning experience for students while fulfilling the evaluation needs of the IHMD and the respective hospitals. The limits of the students’ knowledge and experience, clearly communicated, established boundaries for the project as well. Some students found it stressful to be placed in such a high-stakes situation with limited knowledge and experience, but taking part in such an important evaluation and seeing the overt negotiating of power was revelatory. Students noted, “The goal of the class was to learn about program evaluation and the class did that, but even more.” “I learned how important community-university partnerships were. Community organizations will see that the university wants to be involved.” “There was the meshing of groups to address an important national need.” For some students it was a life-changing educational experience; as a result of her participation, one student has gone into a formal disaster management academic program.

### Discussion

After our analysis and model development we return to the approaches to service-learning outlined in Table 1 and suggest adding a relational approach as an extension of existing service-learning program planning models and as a more accurate description of the planning processes that took place across each of the service-learning cases. The Relational Approach (at the bottom of Table 1) draws from a dialogic planning practice characterized by linking of the technical, practical, and sociopolitical dimensions and acknowledgment of the resources, needs, and interests of each stakeholder. This approach differentiates itself from previous models’ emphasis on technical mastery, decision making, and negotiation

of power and interests through its added focus on facilitation of developmental and ongoing relationship building through dialogue among stakeholders and reflection.

A number of planning components stood out in each of the case studies. One important aspect of the model that emerged from each service-learning case was the need and ability to conduct research as part of the course objectives. Each of the cases required students to conduct research to identify community partners who had a stake in the program and planning process and to survey their needs and interests. Students also conducted exploratory research to better understand contextual factors (historical, institutional, cultural, etc.) that had or would have an effect on the program being designed and implemented. A common expectation in most graduate courses is that students will learn how to conduct research; therefore each of the service-learning courses benefited from the ability to engage in exploratory and ongoing research that informed decisions at different stages of the planning process. Another implication of the research dimension of the model is to support faculty to encourage undergraduate students to engage in service-learning research.

In each of the case studies, the research dimension of the model helped in identifying stakeholders and important historical and contextual factors, clarifying stakeholder needs and interests, and fostering the inclusion of multiple stakeholders in the planning processes—including resource-poor stakeholders who are not connected with the university and often marginalized from decisions made at the university. Beyond attending to who needs to be included, the research dimension of the planning process leads to a more focused and nuanced understanding of context and stakeholder needs and interests. Through the process of researching stakeholder needs and interests and then negotiating their fulfillment, the research dimension of the model illuminates what is typically an unequal relation of power—in this case, some stakeholders’ lack of access to important social services and community resources.

The research dimension of this model on and with stakeholders has implications for service-learning and program planning theory and practice. While Cervero and Wilson (2006) and Caffarella (2002) emphasize the need for planners to understand, reflect on, and negotiate how context, institutions, and stakeholders differentially affect the planning process, they assume realistic limitations on planners’ time and ability to truly engage in data gathering that might specify multiple stakeholder needs and interests. However, in each of the cases studied here, we found that incorporating research opportunities throughout the service-learning courses helped

ensure greater understanding and clarity among stakeholders on a variety of issues (identification of stakeholders; needs, goals, and activities; nature of the problem; theories; approaches; etc). It also broadened inclusivity of the planning process to accommodate multiple stakeholders.

In addition to bringing technical and research expertise, making a set of reflective planning decisions that respond to unique contextual factors (Caffarella, 2002), and negotiating stakeholder interests and power (Cervero & Wilson, 2006), responsible program planning also requires nurturing relationships and fostering dialogue among partners beyond the traditional focus on improving teacher-student relationships. The goals and objectives of the service-learning program should be derived from the shared goals and visions of the partners. Ideally, these goals are clearly stated, but more often than not, expectations, needs, and expected outcomes are tacit, and purposeful dialogue is required to establish clear terms for program success. All participants need to convey their own perception of the partnership and the anticipated process, outcomes, and program goals. Successful communication provides a foundation for sustainable service-learning experiences that are beneficial to all stakeholders involved in the planning process.

While research was an important part in identifying and clarifying stakeholder needs and interests, we found that in each of the cases, the faculty member played a significant role in building relationships among stakeholders and establishing a process for communicating needs and interests, identifying roles and responsibilities, determining program goals and objectives, and designing program activities to meet them. One particularly useful method was the use of an advisory board to provide guidance on each aspect of the program planning process. In each case, faculty also promoted dialogue, shared knowledge, and increased participation in the planning process for community partners by co-facilitating seminars with them and bringing them in as consultants.

For a service-learning course to be successful, partners must have an equitable, though not necessarily equal, relationship. That is, partners can contribute significantly differing resources to the overall outcomes. Drawing on program planning theories that consider stakeholder relations, needs, and interests empowers service-learning educators and students to become power brokers not only in meeting and balancing the needs of the respective partners, but also in building and maintaining among stakeholders relationships that would not have existed

**Table 2**  
*Strengths and Challenges from Case Study Data*

	Partners (In addition to students, faculty)	Research	Relationships	Roles & Responsibilities	Representation (products)	Resources
<b>Strengths</b>	Students interact with “real-world” partners	Understand application in context	Shared/division on labor	Theory-practice linkage event	Experience developing and producing useful tools, resources, and products aimed at individual, institutional, program, and policy change	Access to “real world;” multiple sources of knowledge and resources as well as diverse environments; multiple actors and experiences
	Community members have greater voice and access to university resources		Social networking	Going beyond individual learning toward institutional and policy change		
<b>Challenges</b>	Identifying, connecting, building relationships among, and negotiating needs/interests of multiple stakeholders	Qualifications/capacity of students to engage with stakeholders and conduct research	Faculty need significant social and management skills	Need to meet work site standards/expectations	Writing for stakeholders different from typical academic writing	Limited resources shared
	Sustainability and growth of partnership	Who has access and use of the data/findings	Time to build relationships and trust, for ongoing communication and negotiation of roles, issues, and decision making between stakeholders			

without a conscious decision on the part of the faculty member to build bridges among stakeholders. As the primary conduit for engaging with stakeholders, the faculty member facilitates ongoing dialogue, builds social networks, and nurtures relationships through mechanisms such as advisory boards. These are intensive processes entailing substantial social and intercultural communication skills, considerable management ability, and significant amounts of time.

Representation is also an important dimension that emerged from comparative analysis across each of the cases; it adds insight to previous program planning models by going beyond the negotiation of interests and power to provide concrete examples of how to represent diverse stakeholder interests as part of the planning process. We found that through engagement with multiple stakeholders, each of the service-learning courses broke out of planning traditions that gauge success in terms of student learning outcomes and technical proficiency. Rather, success was considered on the basis of representing multiple stakeholder needs and interests. Representations ranged from reports, grant proposals, evaluation instruments, policy papers, and Web sites containing resources and educational materials to more standard service-learning reflection journals, papers, and portfolios documenting student learning outcomes.

As we indicate in Table 2, there were a number of strengths and challenges associated with applying the SLPPM. In each of the three cases, effective program planning occurred when all four partners engaged in dialogue around the nature and level of research, relationships, roles and responsibilities, representation, and resources. Central to the planning process was the key role that faculty played in building and nurturing relationships among stakeholders so that each could meaningfully participate in all five program planning dimensions. Findings generated from this comparative case study clearly indicate that program planning models in service-learning need to address the central role that faculty play in identifying, building, and nurturing relationships among diverse stakeholders involved in and affected by service-learning programs.

In addition, planning models need to consider more substantially the requisite knowledge and skill that faculty must develop and bring to the planning table to ensure that all stakeholders can participate meaningfully in planning each of the five dimensions of the relational service-learning model that emerged from our case study research.

### **Conclusion**

The purpose of this article was to introduce program planning theory in adult education to the field of service-learning and to explore how program plan-

ning theory impacts the quality of service-learning practice. Findings from the comparative analysis of three case studies led to the development of a relational program planning model for service-learning.

### *Model Comparisons*

By introducing dimensions of program planning that combine technical and reflective approaches to curriculum design with program planning aimed at building partnerships among diverse stakeholders, we have tried to create an alternative discourse focused on how program planning theory impacts the quality of service-learning practice. In doing so, we have assessed program planning theories that consider the technical, social, and political dimensions of educational programs and examined them in relation to the unique context of graduate service-learning. Existing program planning models offered a foundation for exploring service-learning programs, yet they fell short in capturing the social, political, institutional, and scholarly dimensions of service-learning practice. Program planning approaches reviewed in this paper did not adequately reflect the environment of service-learning stakeholders or the roles each plays in initiating and sustaining a successful service-learning program at a graduate level. Technical-rational approaches offered formulaic techniques for planning programs, yet did not reflect the context necessary for framing service-learning. Service-learning approaches attended to the importance of context through student-centered, project-based outcomes, but failed to incorporate the process of negotiating different stakeholder needs, interests, and power. Adult education approaches included interactive and democratic practices that integrated context, including practical decision-making based on social and political factors, in the planning process; however, these fell short in addressing ways to facilitate ongoing research and developmental dialogues among stakeholders integral to successful service-learning programs.

### *Being a Responsible Program Planner*

What does this research suggest about being a responsible service-learning planner? In current planning models, a responsible planner has technical competence, skills in facilitation, a reflective disposition, and the ability to recognize and democratically negotiate stakeholder power, needs, and interests. In addition, a responsible planner in the relational model can identify, affirm, nurture, and represent all the stakeholders and identify and represent stakeholder interests throughout the partnership. Additionally, in this model a responsible program planner can frame and conduct different types of collaborative research while building the capacity of students and community

members to do so. Such a planner understands the level of resources needed to execute the partnership and can find or commit resources. The relational nature of this model implies that a responsible planner can see multiple impacts, reports to various stakeholders, and builds social networks for the partnership's sustainability beyond a single class.

Our research suggests that a responsible service-learning planner is more often than not a faculty member who has a penchant for taking risks and for questioning and reframing dominant cultural and institutional norms and expectations, and who possesses a fairly advanced skill set—skills not ordinarily taught in most doctoral programs nor encouraged for faculty considering promotion and tenure. Beyond discipline-specific technical skill and content mastery, given the problem-centered nature of service-learning, responsible service-learning educators also need to be open-minded to learn new skills and disciplinary knowledge outside their home discipline. Responsible planning in service-learning also requires substantial social and cross-cultural/cross-disciplinary skills that allow for building stable and sustainable relationships with diverse stakeholders who bring different needs, concerns, attitudes, motivations, perspectives, and issues to the planning table. In short, the responsible service-learning educator faces a formidable set of constraints and challenges.

#### *Issues and Challenges in the Relational Model*

In each of the three cases, applying the relational model helped ensure greater stakeholder participation in the planning process. However, challenges unique to a service-learning context sponsored by institutions of higher education remain that need to be better understood and addressed. The model highlights the need for a more complex understanding of factors involved in social relations among stakeholders, including interests, needs, knowledge, skills, power, position, limitations, disposition, and personality. While research is essential for identifying stakeholders and generating a deeper understanding of diverse stakeholder needs, assets, and interests, it alone cannot ensure meaningful stakeholder inclusion in each dimension of the planning process or that people of different circumstances will get along well enough to develop a meaningful partnership and participate in planning each of the program dimensions. The strong relationships necessary for effective program planning in a service-learning context rest on effective intercultural communication, which requires a unique set of social, emotional, and technical skills to engage in listening, dialogue, critical reflection, empathy, and support. When the appropriate skills, support structures, and processes are absent, relationships break down, and the resulting

communication difficulties could negatively impact the development of a robust and sustainable service-learning partnership. In what ways, then, do planning theories address learning processes and skills that lead to more substantial relationship building, and hence, more stable and sustainable campus-community partnerships? Our relational model only begins to address that question; further study is needed in the area of faculty preparation and professional development to effectively design and plan service-learning programs.

The study findings also suggest the need to understand the institutions' role in enhancing or hindering democratic program planning that supports reciprocal community-university partnerships. The educational institution is an important stakeholder that affects the format, content, process, need, and support for service-learning programs. Examples from each of the cases highlight a number of institutional barriers to more democratic and inclusive planning processes, including: the diminished capacity to include in the planning process the community and faculty stakeholders outside the discipline, lack of faculty incentives related to tenure and promotion, bounded semesters and curricula, a human subjects review process that is not amenable to community engaged scholarship, historical tensions between town and gown, lack of resources devoted to community-university partnerships, and lack of a central location for planning programs and projects. By affirming and adding to Cervero and Wilson's program planning theory (1994, 2006), which focuses heavily on the planner's ability to negotiate unequal relations of power more democratically, the relational model compels service-learning educators to address important questions related to the ways institutions impact the planning process. How does the institution support or impede more robust forms of democratic and inclusive service-learning programs? Can higher education institutions accommodate more substantial forms of service-learning and engagement, or will they perpetuate unequal relations of power and existing social relations? This research suggests that critical, relational program planning theory presents opportunities to renegotiate relationships as a way to break out of institutional conventions without having to dismantle them.

In addition to challenging institutional positionality, program planning theory presents opportunities to alter the mental models of the other partners. Students can gain a broader understanding of how courses operate, instructors can examine their multiple roles, and community partners can observe more substantially their outsider/insider relationship and their level and type of access to higher education. There is a need for further research to examine how

program planning theory disrupts individual stakeholders' assumptions, perspectives, needs and interests, relations of power, cultural and institutional norms and expectations, and policies.

Finally, our research illustrates the importance of including the principles of program planning theory in a relational model to inform the theory and practice of service-learning. This proposed relational model highlights the technical, practical, political, democratic, and relational aspects of program planning to offer a common language for service-learning educators and practitioners to better articulate what they do, and how their actions and contributions to the planning process ultimately affect not only learners but community and institutional stakeholders as well. While the language of this model confirms the aspects of adult program planning models that focus on context, power, stakeholders, and democratic planning processes (Caffarella, 2002; Cervero & Wilson, 2006), it emphasizes the key role of relationship building for program planning in service-learning contexts. Applying this stakeholder- and dimension-based process provides more substantial and realistic direction for the service-learning field and for faculty who must grapple with the technical, political, practical, and social dimensions of planning service-learning programs in their institutions and with diverse communities.

### Notes

<sup>1</sup> For example, literature that focuses on service-learning and social justice, see Butin (2007), Deans (1999), Koliba et al (2000); Leeds (1999); Morton (1995); Wade (2000, 2001); and Westheimer and Kahne (2004).

<sup>2</sup> It should be noted that Kiely (2005), who had drawn from different critical models and theories to design and teach service-learning, realized the powerful connection between current program planning theory and service-learning after incorporating service-learning into a graduate program planning course he taught in 2004 and 2005. This study was conducted to better understand how components in program planning models informed and enhanced the planning and implementations of three distinct service-learning graduate courses.

### References

- Berman, S. (2006). *Service learning: A guide to planning, implementing, and assessing student projects* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Billig, S.H., & Waterman, A.S. (Eds.) (2003). *Studying service learning: Innovations in educational research methodology*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Bringle, R. G. (2003). *The measure of service-learning: Research scales to assess student experiences*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Butin, D. (2007). Justice-learning: Service-learning as justice-oriented education. *Equity and Excellence in Education*, 40, 177-183.
- Caffarella, R. S. (2002). *Planning programs for adult learners* (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Cervero, R. M., & Wilson, A. L. (1994). *Planning responsibly for adult education: A guide to negotiating power and interests*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Cervero, R. M., & Wilson, A. L. (2006). *Working the planning table: Negotiating democratically for adult, continuing, and workplace education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Deans, T. (1999). Service-learning in two keys: Paulo Freire's critical pedagogy in relation to John Dewey's pragmatism. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, 6, 15-29.
- Eyler, J. (2000). What do we most need to know about the impact of service-learning on student learning? *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning* (Special Issue), 11-17.
- Eyler, J. (2002). Reflections: Linking service and learning—linking students and communities. *Journal of Social Issues*, 58(3), 517-534.
- Eyler, J., Giles, D., Stenson, C., & Gray, C. (2001). At a glance: What we know about the effects of service-learning on college students, faculty, institutions, and communities: 1993-2000 [Electronic Version]. Retrieved January 18, 2009 from <http://www.compact.org/resources/downloads/aag.pdf>
- Fenwick, T. (2003.). Reclaiming and re-embodiment experiential learning through complexity science. *Studies in the Education of Adults*, 35(2), 123-141.
- Gent, P. J. (2007). Strange bedfellows: No Child Left Behind and service-learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, 13(2), 65-74.
- Gibbons, M., Limoges, C., Nowotny, H., Schwartzman, S., Scott, P., & Trow, M. (1994). *The new production of knowledge: The dynamics of science and research in contemporary societies*. London: Sage.
- Glaser, B. & Strauss, A. (1973). *The discovery of grounded theory*. Chicago: Aldine.
- Glesne, C. (1999). *Becoming qualitative researchers: An introduction*. White Plains, NY: Longman.
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1989). *Fourth generation evaluation*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Hartz, L. (1955). *The liberal tradition in America*. New York: Harcourt Brace.
- Howard, J. (1998). Academic service learning: A counternormative pedagogy. In R. Rhoades & J. Howard (Eds.), *Academic service learning: A pedagogy of action and reflection* (pp. 21-29). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Howard, J., Gelmon, S. & Giles, D. (2000). From yesterday to tomorrow: Strategic directions for service-learning research. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning* (Special Issue), 5-10.

## Program Planning

- Jacoby, B. & Associates. (1996). *Service- Learning in higher education: Concepts and practices.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Jacoby, B. & Associates. (2003). *Building partnerships for service-learning.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Kaye, C.B. (2004). *The complete guide to service learning: Proven, practical ways to engage students in civic, academic curriculum, and social action.* Minneapolis, MN: Free Spirit Publishing.
- Kiely, R. (2005). A transformative learning model for service-learning: A longitudinal case study. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, 12(1), 5-22.
- Kiely, R., & Kiely A. (2006). International service-learning: What? Why? How? Workshop, NAFSA: Association of International Educators, 58th Annual Conference, 2006, Montreal, CN.
- Kiely, R., Hartman, E., & Nielsen, D. (2005). Understanding the theory and practice of international service-learning: A comparative case study of three program models. *Proceedings of the 5th Annual International Service-learning Research Conference.* Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI.
- Kiely, R., Kiely, A., & Hartman, E. (2005). International service-learning: What? Why? How? NAFSA: Association of International Educators, 57th Annual Conference, Seattle, WA.
- Kolb, A. Y., & Kolb, D. A. (2005). Learning styles and learning spaces: Enhancing experiential learning in higher education. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 4(2), 193-212.
- Kolb, D. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Kolib, C., O'Meara, K., & Seidel, R. (2000). Social justice principles for experiential education. *NSEE Quarterly* 26(1), Fall 2000, 26-29.
- Leeds, J. (1999). Rationales for service-learning: A critical examination. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*. 6, 112-122.
- Mabry, C.K., & Wilson, A.L. (2001). Managing power: The practical work of negotiating interests. Proceedings of the 2001 Adult Education Research Conference. East Lansing: Michigan State University. Available at: <http://www.adulterc.org/Proceedings/2001/2001mabry.htm>
- Morton, K. (1995). The irony of service: Charity, project and social change in service-learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, 2, 19-32.
- O'Grady, C. (Ed.). (2000). *Integrating service learning and multicultural education in colleges and universities.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Ogden, C. & Claus, J. (1999). *Service learning for youth empowerment and social change.* New York, NY: Peter Lang.
- Patton, M. Q. (2008). *Utilization-focused evaluation* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Pigza, J., & Troppe, M. (2003) Developing an infrastructure for service-learning and community engagement. In B. Jacoby & Associates, *Building partnerships for service-learning* (pp. 106-130). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Pritchard, F. F., & Whitehead, G. I. (2004). *Service and learn: Implementing and evaluating service-learning in middle and high schools.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Reardon, K.M. (1994). Undergraduate research in distressed communities. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, 1(1), 44-54.
- Reardon, K. M. (2000). An experiential approach to creating a community/university partnership that works: East St. Louis Action Research Project. *Cityscape*, 5(1), 59-74.
- Reardon, K. M. (2006). Promoting reciprocity within community/university development partnerships: Lessons from the field. *Planning Practice & Research*, 21(1), 95-107.
- Sandmann, L. R. (2006). Scholarship as architecture: Framing and enhancing community engagement. *Journal of Physical Therapy Education*, 20(3), 80-84.
- Sork, T. J. (2000). Planning educational programs. In A. L. Wilson & E. R. Hayes (Eds.), *Handbook of adult and continuing education* (New ed., pp. 171-190). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Strand, K., Marullo, S., Cutforth, N., Stoecker, R., & Donohue, P. (2003). Principles of best practices for community-based research. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, 9(3), 5-15.
- Stenhouse, L. (1988). Case study methods. In J. P. Keeves (Ed.), *Educational research, methodology, and measurement: An international handbook* (pp. 49-53). Oxford: Pergamon.
- Torres, J. (Ed.). (2000). *Benchmarks for campus/community partnerships.* Providence, RI: Campus Compact.
- Tyler, R. (1949). *Basic principles of curriculum and instruction.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Wade, R. C. (2000). Beyond charity: Service-learning for social justice. *Social Studies and the Young Learner*, 12(4), 6-9.
- Wade, R.C. (2001). And justice for all: Community service-learning for social justice. Issue Paper, Denver, CO, Education Commission of the States.
- Westheimer, J & Kahne, J. (2004). What kind of citizen? The politics of educating for democracy. *American Educational Research Journal*, 41(2), 237-269.

## Authors

LORILEE R. SANDMANN is associate professor in the Department of Lifelong Education, Administration, and Policy at the University of Georgia. Her research focuses on major institutional change processes to promote higher education community engagement and on criteria to define and evaluate faculty engaged scholarship. She received her doctorate from the University of Wisconsin-Madison.

*Sandmann, Kiely, & Grenier*

RICHARD C. KIELY is director of the Teaching Assistant Program in the Center for Teaching Excellence, Cornell University. He is a graduate of Cornell University and former faculty director, Cornell Urban Scholars Program. His interests include learning theory, global citizenship, and service-learning in domestic and international settings.

ROBIN S. GRENIER is an assistant professor of Adult Learning in the Department of Educational Leadership in the Neag School of Education at the University of Connecticut. She is a graduate of the University of Georgia and her research interests include expertise development, informal and experiential learning, museums as places of learning, and qualitative inquiry.

**Appendix A**  
**Case Study Data Matrix for Service-Learning Model**

Service Learning Model Components	Partners (in addition to students, faculty)	Research	Relationships	Roles & Responsibilities	Representation (Products)	Resources
Case: Program Evaluation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Professional evaluators</li> <li>•Institute for Health Management and Mass Destruction (IHMD)</li> <li>•State Dept. of Health</li> <li>•Hospitals in drill</li> <li>•Emergency preparedness staff at hospitals</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Evaluation of hospital preparedness plan— involving knowledge about Joint Commission on the Accreditation of Healthcare Org/ Federal Emergency &amp; Management Agency criteria and standards and developing evaluation measures</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•IHMD staff brokered information, managed security protocol</li> <li>•IHMD staff link to hospitals</li> <li>•Course instructor served as a liaison between IHMD, students, and secure materials</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Students/instructor needed to be Disaster-management evaluator certified</li> <li>•Students to unobtrusively participate in drill</li> <li>•Conduct evaluation with the standards of ethical practice</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Oral and written input into hospital After Action reports.</li> <li>•Evaluation report and executive summary to IHMD director</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Access to confidential information</li> <li>•Access to hospitals participating in drill</li> <li>•Professional evaluators (partnered on site with students)</li> </ul>
Case: Educational Change & Organizational Learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Nonprofit food bank and homeless shelter, Northeast Food Bank (NFB)</li> <li>•NFB staff and administrator</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Conduct an organizational learning assessment to represent how NFB knowledge is stored and shared within NFB</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•NFB liaison brokered information, served as key informant on participant selection</li> <li>•Instructor served as liaison between NFB and students</li> <li>•Some students had existing external/personal relationships to maintain with NFB staff and administrators</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Students to gather qualitative data with NFB staff and volunteers</li> <li>•NFB liaison to inform staff and volunteers of the students' work and encourage participation</li> <li>•Instructor mediates communication between NFB liaison and students</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Formal oral and written input into the development of NFB's knowledge management processes</li> <li>•Evaluation report and executive summary to NFB director</li> <li>•Summary of methods for collecting and documenting mental models given to class</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Access to NFB staff and volunteers</li> <li>•Access to NFB administrative documents/policies/procedures</li> <li>•Student expertise in a method of documenting expressed mental models</li> </ul>
Case: Adult Education for Community Development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Hispanic social service agencies &amp; nonprofits</li> <li>•Hispanic communities</li> <li>•Local technical college</li> <li>•Technology consultant</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Exploratory interviews with local Hispanic community members and service provider staff</li> <li>•Surveys of adult Hispanics &amp; technical college admin.</li> <li>•Participatory action research between students, consultant, instructor and technical college staff</li> <li>•Research on immigration literature, studies, and legislation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Instructor, students, grad asst., and consultant designed and conducted interviews, surveys, and PAR project</li> <li>•Instructor responsible for human subjects application and review, research training, data collection and analysis, and reporting with grad. asst., consultant, and students</li> <li>•Technical college dean managed staff and coordination of PAR project with technology consultant, advisory board, and instructor</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•4 research reports on educational needs and concerns of adult Hispanic population and models for technical college recruitment, retention, and career advancement of Hispanic adults</li> <li>•Web site with immigration resources</li> <li>•Bilingual written and audiovisual materials for increasing technical college recruitment, admission, retention, and career advancement of Hispanic adults</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Graduate students research and volunteer work in 5 courses</li> <li>•Grad. asst. for each course</li> <li>•Grant funding (4 years)</li> <li>•Grant-funded grad. asst. and consultant</li> <li>•Hispanic advisory board</li> <li>•Access to technical college research</li> </ul>	